

SECR2033

Computer Organization and Architecture

Module 1

Introduction

Objectives:

- ❑ To study of computers with a brief history that serves the purpose of providing an overview of computer structure and functions.
- ❑ To differentiate between computer architecture and computer organization.
- ❑ To understand what makes a computer system tick before attempt to optimize the programs that it runs.

Module 1

Introduction

1.1 An Overview

1.2 Components of Computer

1.3 Computer Structure and Functions

1.4 Computer Evolution

1.5 Computer Level Hierarchy

1.6 An Example System

1.7 Summary

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- The Computer Family
- Computer Types

1.1 An Overview

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- This subject is about the structure and function of computers in order to differentiate the nature and characteristics of modern-day computers clearly.
- This task is challenging because:
 - 1) **Variety** of computer products from a single-chip microcomputers to supercomputers.
 - Variety not only in cost, but also in size, performance, and application.
 - 2) **Rapid changes** in all aspect that characterized computer technology continuously.



- In describing computers, a distinction is often made between **computer architecture** and **computer organization**.

Computer architecture

Refer to those attributes of a system:

- that visible to a programmer
- Have a direct impact on the logical execution of a program.

Computer organization

Refer to the operational units and their interconnections that realize the architectural specification.

How do I design a computer?

How does a computer work?



- Computer architecture and organization include many elements to be addressed:

Computer architecture

- *Instruction sets & formats.*
- *Operation codes.*
- *Data types*
- *Number & types of registers*
- *Addressing modes.*
- *Memory access methods.*
- *I/O mechanisms.*

Computer organization

- *Control signal*
- *Signaling method*
- *Memory types.*

The Computer Family

- Many computer manufacturers offer a family of computer models, all with the **same architecture** but with **differences in organization**.
- All Intel x86 family share the same basic architecture.
- The IBM System/370 architecture first introduced in 1970 included a number of models that share the same basic architecture and has survived to this day as the architecture of IBM's mainframe product line.
- The newer models retained the same architecture so that the customer's software investment was protected (code compatibility).

1933 vs. 1948 Chevrolet

From whittling a 2x4 to a smooth clay styling model



Same
architecture
BUT
different in
organization !

1948 vs. 1963 Ford

From fat fendered to smooth, integrated design

1963 vs. 1978 Volkswagen

From 1930s Hitler to 1970s sharp-edged Giugiaro

1978 vs. 1993 Lincoln

From brick to jelly bean

1993 vs. 2008 Toyota

Minuscule style evolution

One advantage having the **SAME** architecture is that the same software can be used in the newer computer models with **DIFFERENT** computer organization.

*Why study computer
architecture and computer
organization?*



- To design better programs, including system software such as compilers, operating systems, and device drivers.
- To optimize program behavior.
- To evaluate (benchmark) computer system performance.
- To understand time, space, and price tradeoffs.
 - *e.g.* Solving calculation in less time but more memory.

Computer Types

- Computers can be generally classified by size and power as follows, though there is considerable overlap:

- **Personal Computer (PC):**

A small, single-user computer based on a microprocessor.



- **Workstation:** A powerful, single-user computer. A workstation is like a PC, but it has a more powerful microprocessor and, in general, a higher-quality monitor.



- **Minicomputer**: A multi-user computer capable of supporting up to hundreds of users simultaneously.



- **Mainframe**: A powerful multi-user computer capable of supporting many hundreds or thousands of users simultaneously.



■ Supercomputer:

An extremely fast computer that can perform hundreds of millions of instructions per second.



THE WORLD'S FASTEST SUPERCOMPUTER IS BACK IN AMERICA

Meet Summit

By [Micah Singleton](#) | [@MicahSingleton](#) | Jun 12, 2018, 4:35pm EDT



■ Mobile Devices :

A computing device that small enough to hold and operate in the hand (like smartphones, PDAs etc).

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1.2 Components of Computer

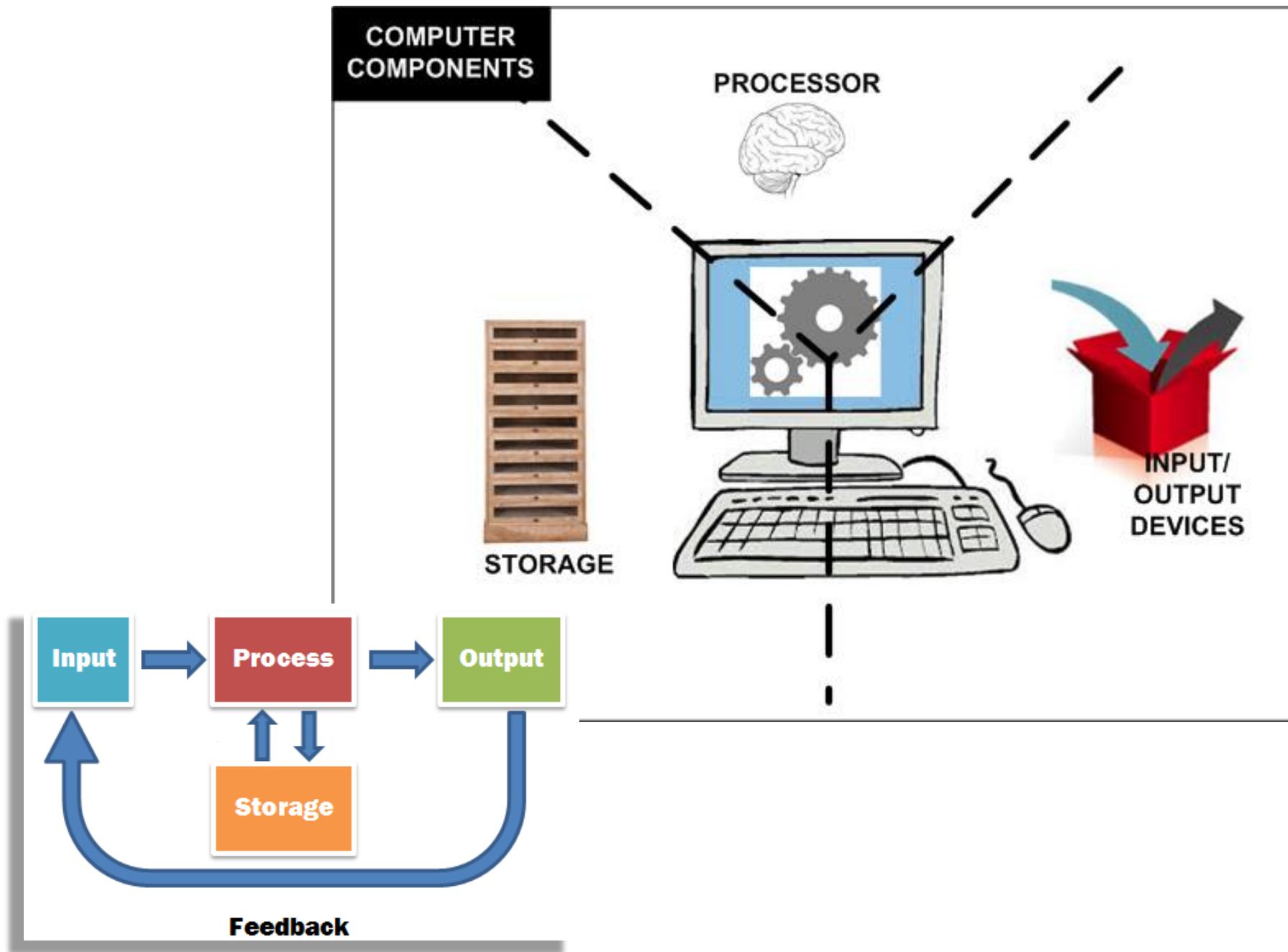
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■ Computers : Definition

- An electronic device for storing and processing data, typically in binary form, according to instructions given to it in a variable program.
- An electronic device designed to accept data, perform prescribed mathematical and logical operations at high speed, and display the results of these operations.



Keywords: *store, process, input/output (I/O)*



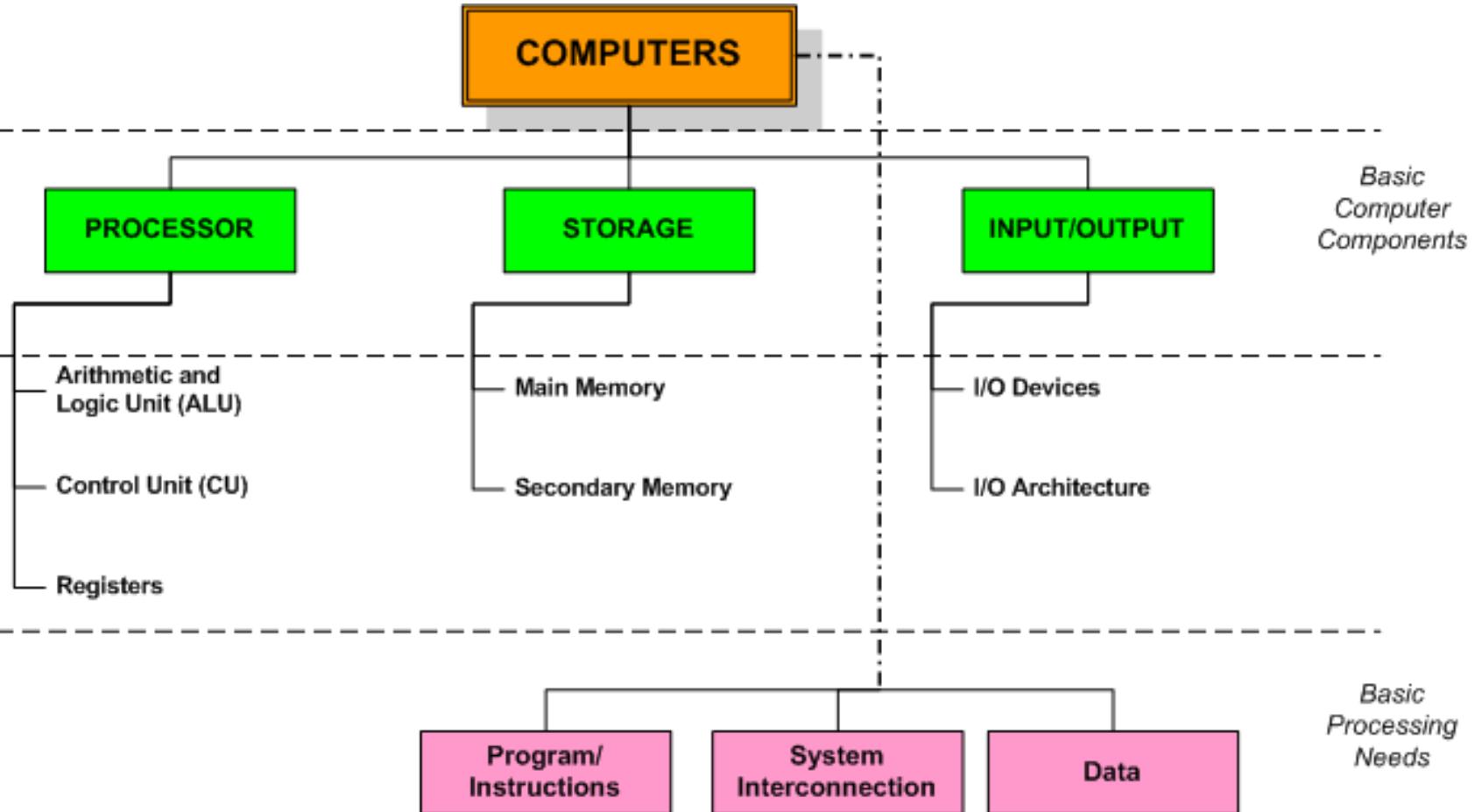


Figure: Computer components in detail

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- Overview
- Structure
- Functions
- Program

1.3 Computer Structure & Functions

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- A computer is a complex system with a hierarchical system of interrelated subsystems with different levels.
- At each level, the designer is concerned with structure and function:

Structure

The way in which the components are interrelated.

Functions

The operation of each individual component as part of the structure.

*CPU (Control Processing Unit)
I/O (Input/Output)
ALU (Arithmetic Logic Unit)*

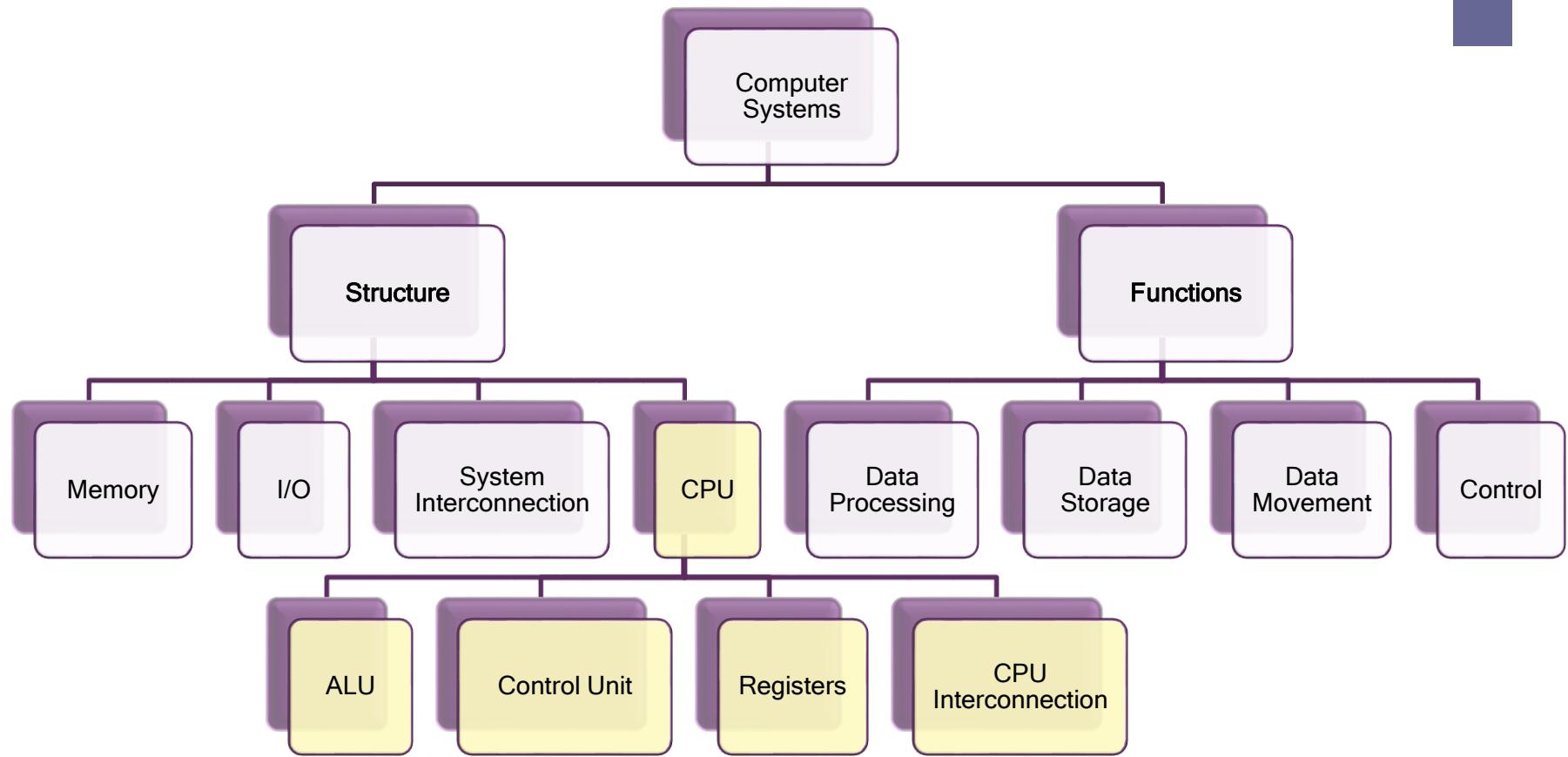
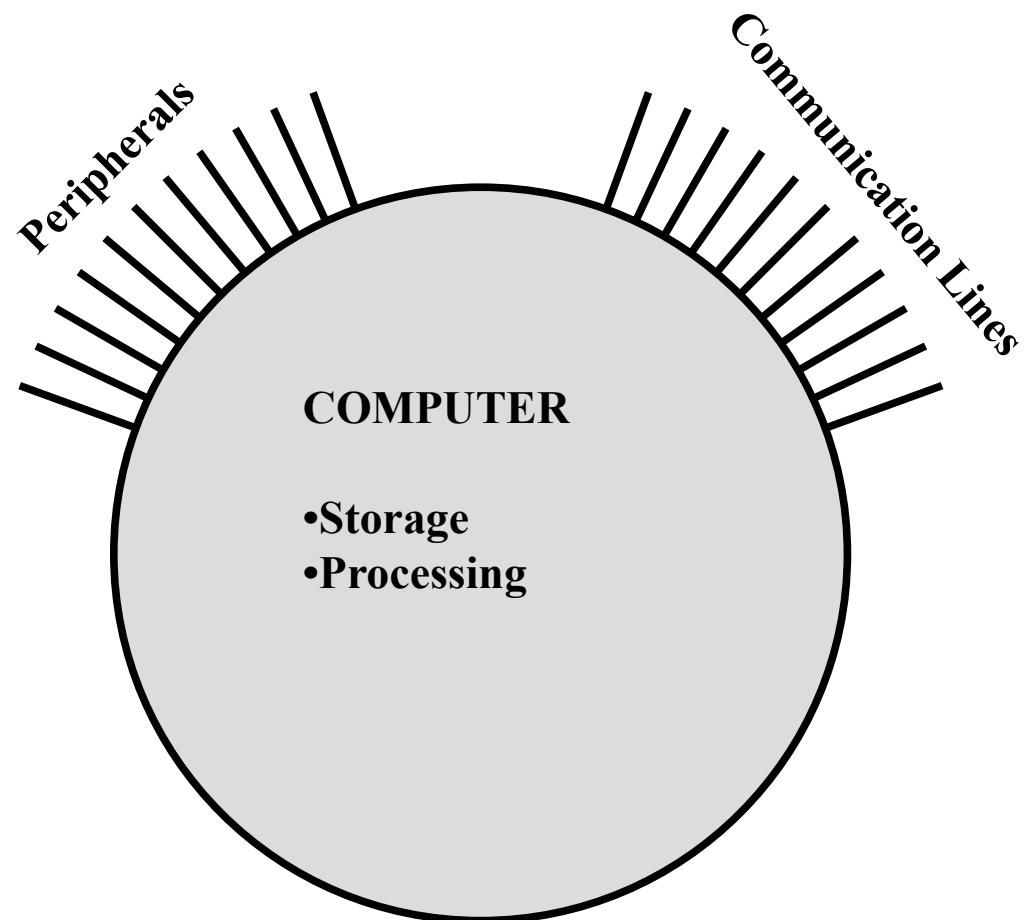


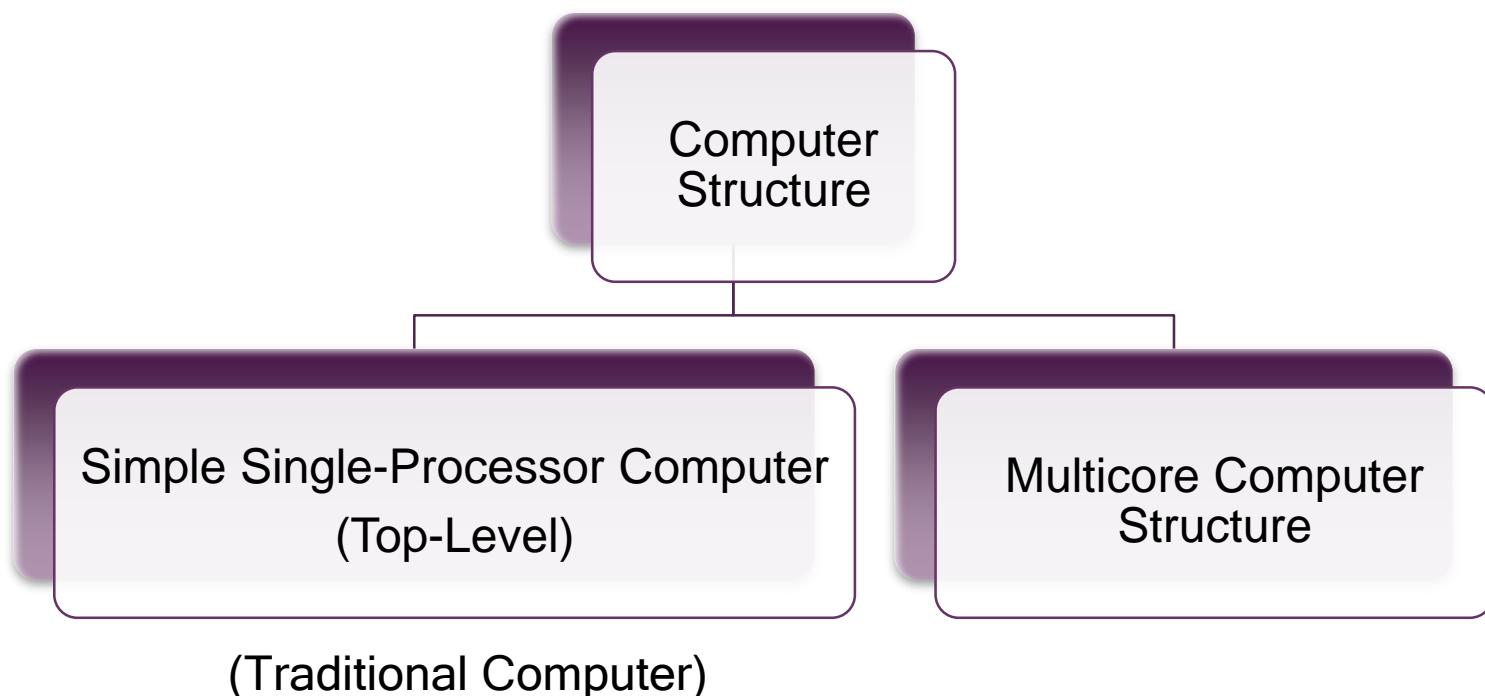
Figure: Computer components in each level

Structure

- The simplest possible depiction of a computer:



- General way of the internal structure of a computer:



Structure

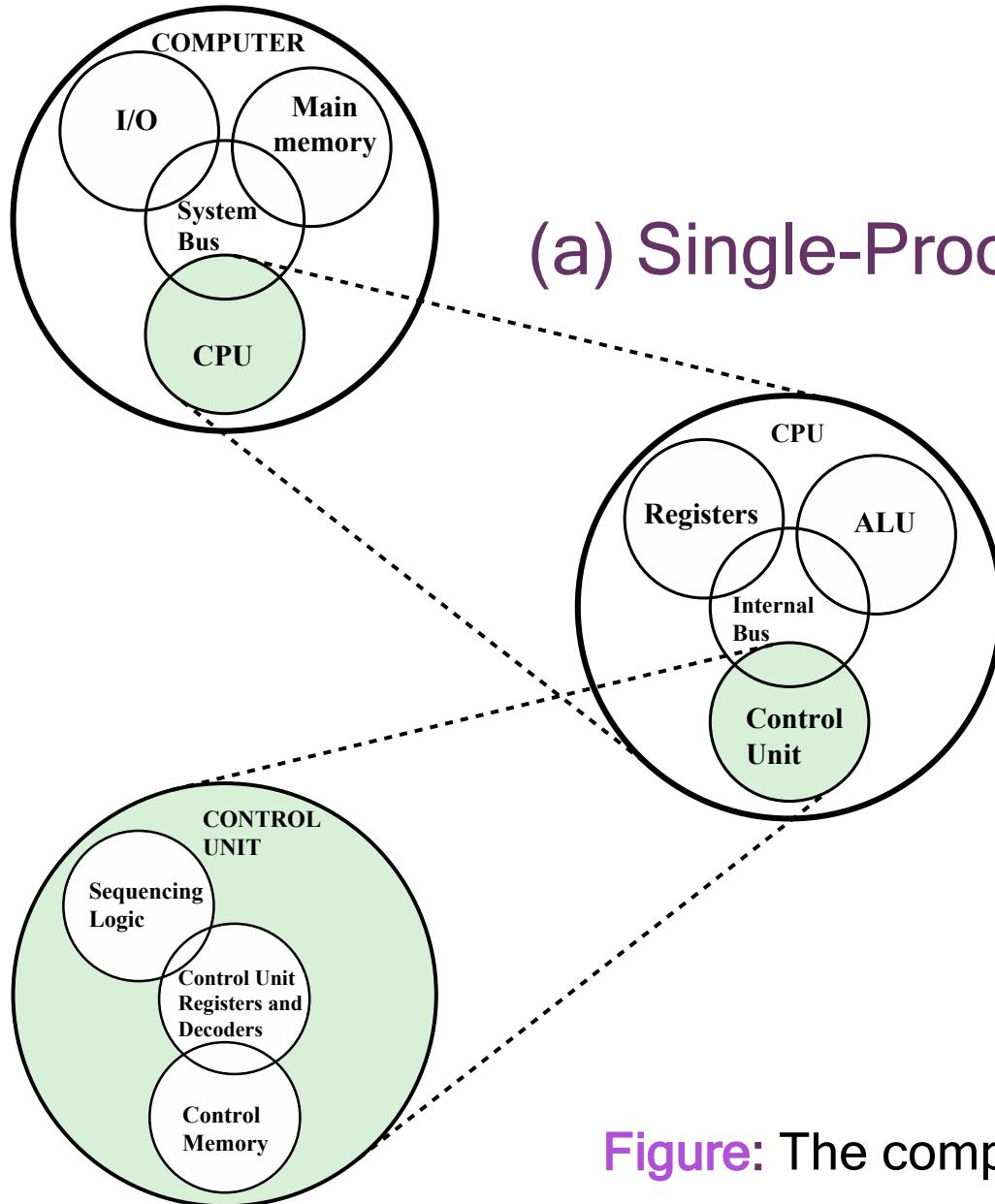


Figure: The computer: Top-Level structure

Table: The task for each structural component.

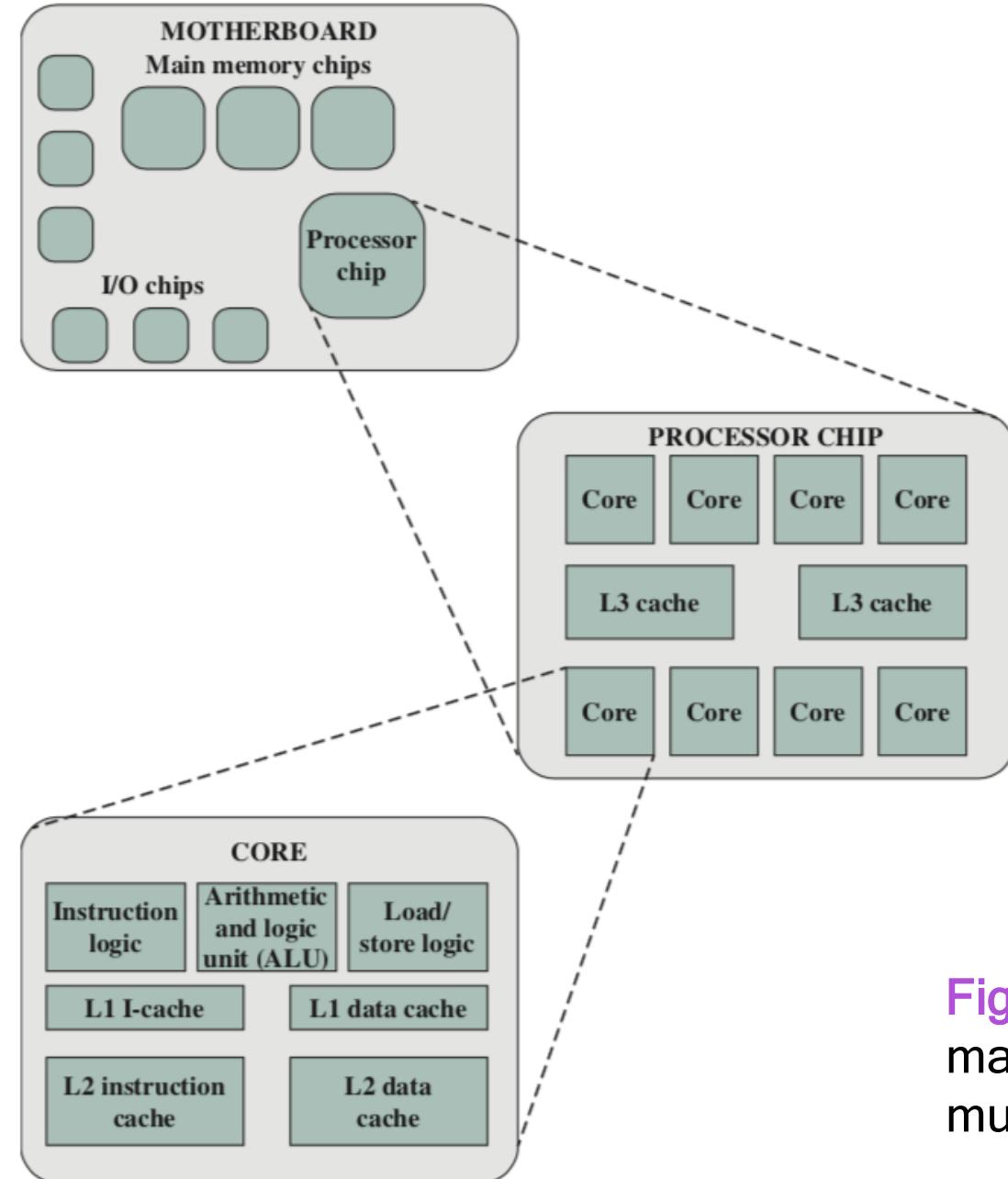
Components	Task
CPU <i>(Processor)</i>	<u>Controls</u> the operation of the computer and <u>performs</u> its data processing functions.
Memory	<u>Stores</u> data.
I/O	<u>Moves</u> data between the computer and its external environment.
System Interconnection <i>(System bus)</i>	Mechanism for <u>communication</u> among CPU, main memory, and I/O.

Table: The major structural components of CPU.

Components	Task
ALU	<u>Performs</u> the computer's data processing functions.
Control Unit (CU)	<u>Controls</u> CPU operations.
Registers	Provides <u>internal storage</u> to the CPU.
CPU Interconnection	Mechanism for <u>communication</u> among the ALU, Control Unit, and Registers.

(b) Multicore Computer Structure

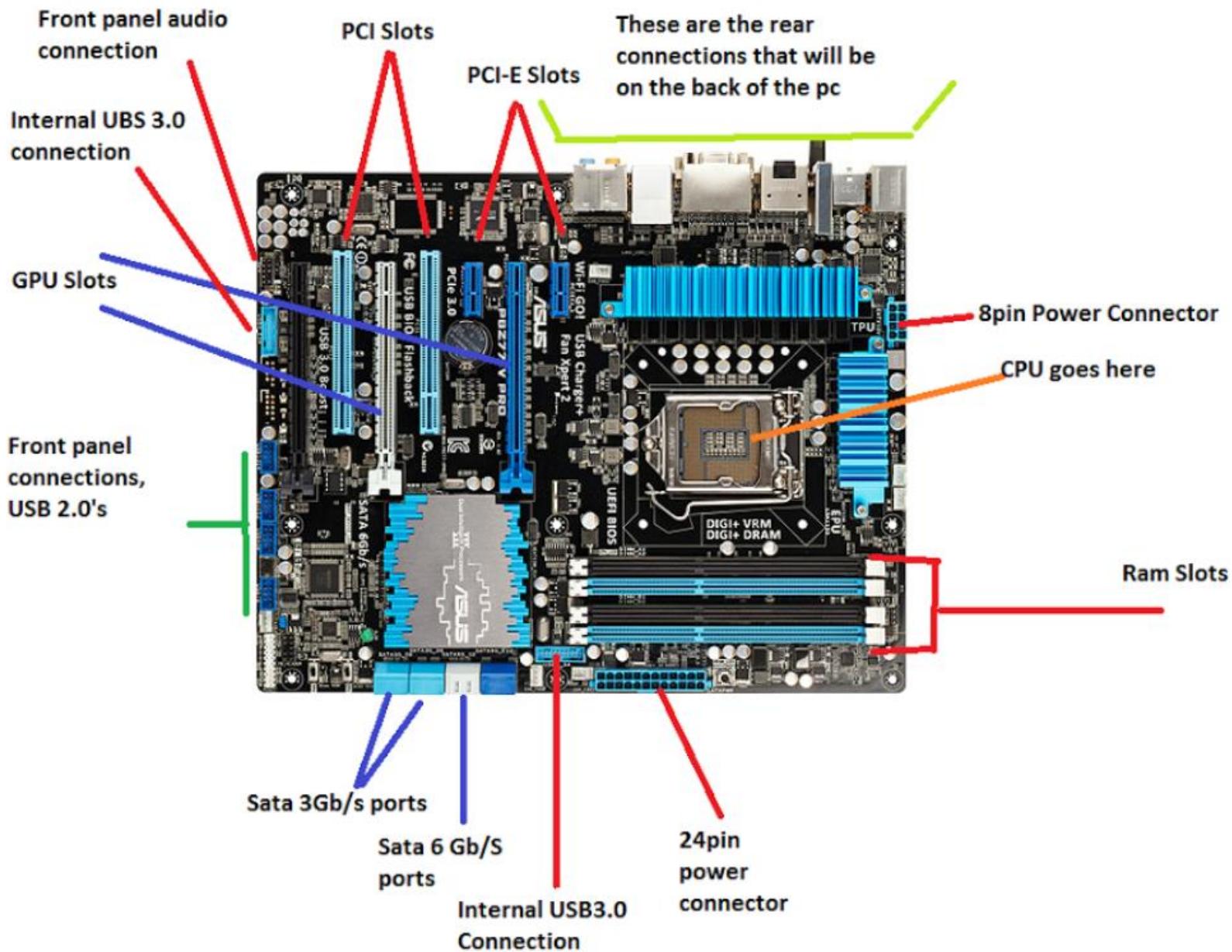
- Generally, the contemporary computers have multiple processors.
- All processors reside on a single chip.
- Each processing units (CU, ALU, registers) is called a **core**.
- The use of multiple layers of memory is called **cache memory**.

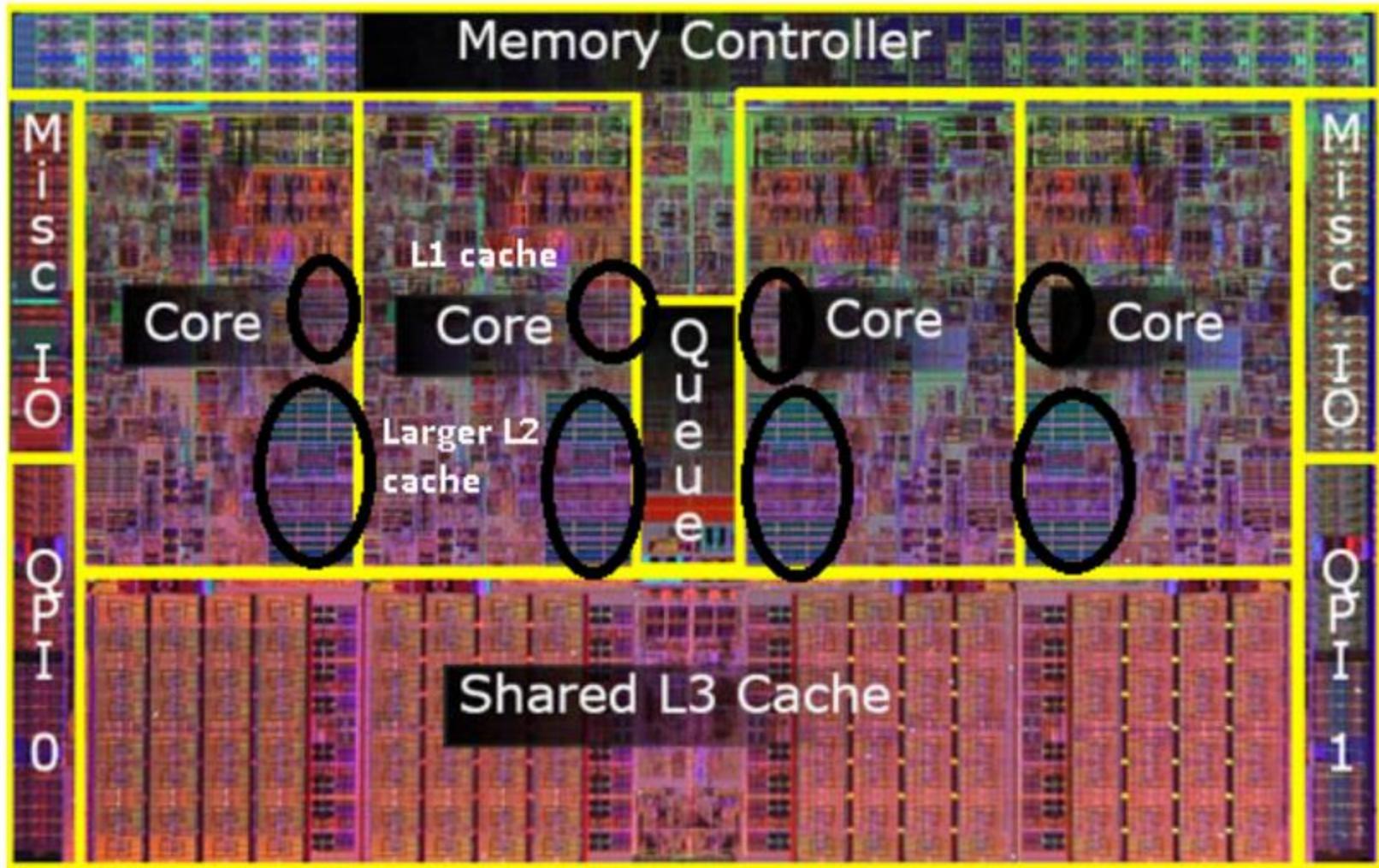


*CPU (Control Processing Unit)
I/O (Input/Output)*



Figure: Simplified view of major elements of a multicore computer





L1, L2 and L3 cache in a four core processor ([credit](#))

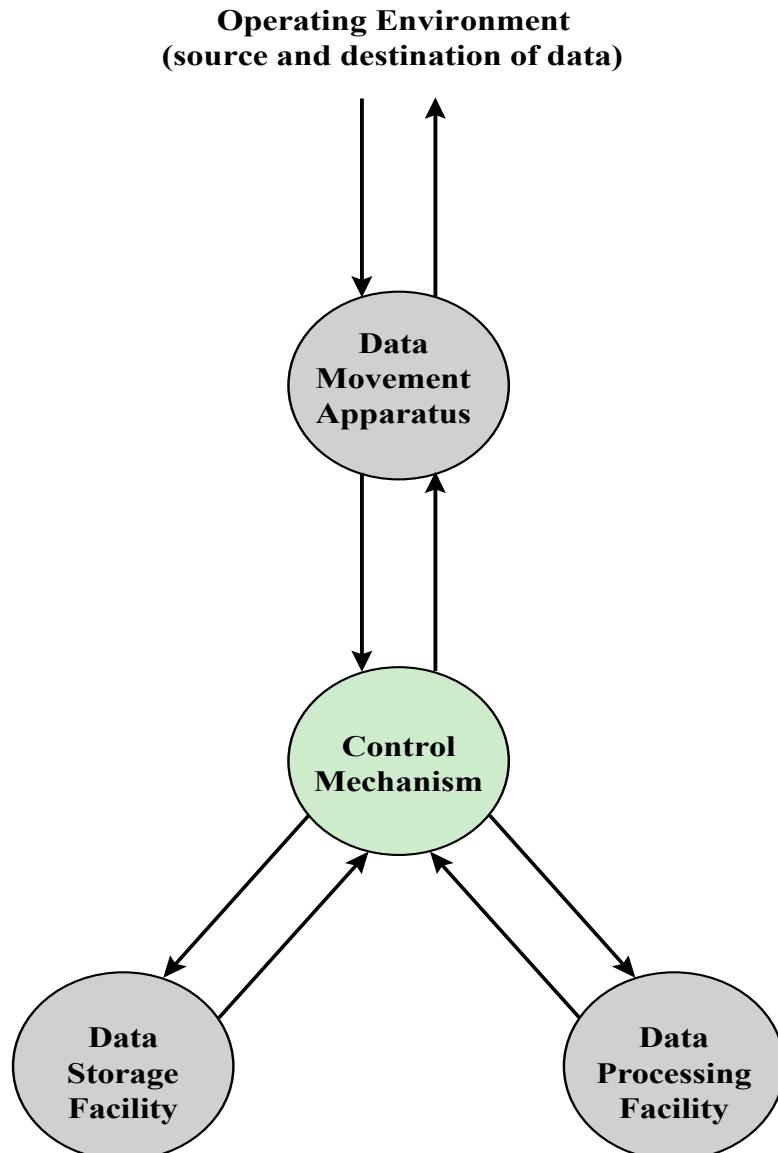
Figure: A typical computer advertisement.

Video 1 - Cache memory

1

- What is cache memory? L1, L2 and L3? Please watch the YouTube video
- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IA8au8Qr3lo>

Functions



- Both the structure and functioning of a computer are simple.
- Figure depicts the basic functions that a computer can perform.
- In general terms, there are only four:
 - Data processing
 - Data storage
 - Data movement
 - Control

Figure: A functional view of the computer.

Table: The task for each function component.

Functions	Task
Data Processing	Process data in variety of forms and requirements.
Data Storage	Short and long term data storage for retrieval and update.
Data Movement	Moves data between the computer and outside world.
Control	Control of <u>process</u> , <u>move</u> and <u>store</u> data using instruction.

Functions
are
performed
through
programs

Program

- A sequence of steps.
- For each step, a computer function is executed.
- For each operation:
 - a different/new set of control signals is needed.
 - a unique code (instruction) is provided. *e.g.* ADD, MOVE
- A hardware segment accepts the code and issues the control signals.

Program: Execution

- Two approaches:

Approach 1: Hardwired

Built into (wired into) computers hardware.

Uses a sequence of arithmetic and logic functions

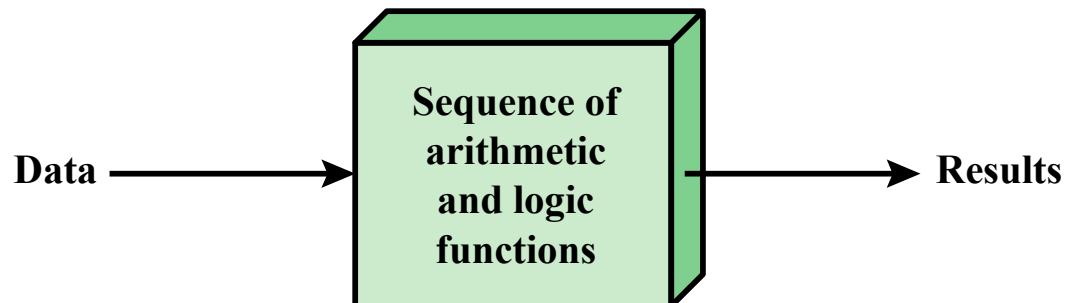
Provides high speed but **inflexible to change**.

Approach 2: Software

Control signals through instruction codes.

Needs an interpreter to “speak machine”.

While **less speed**, it is easily reprogrammable.



(a) Programming in hardware

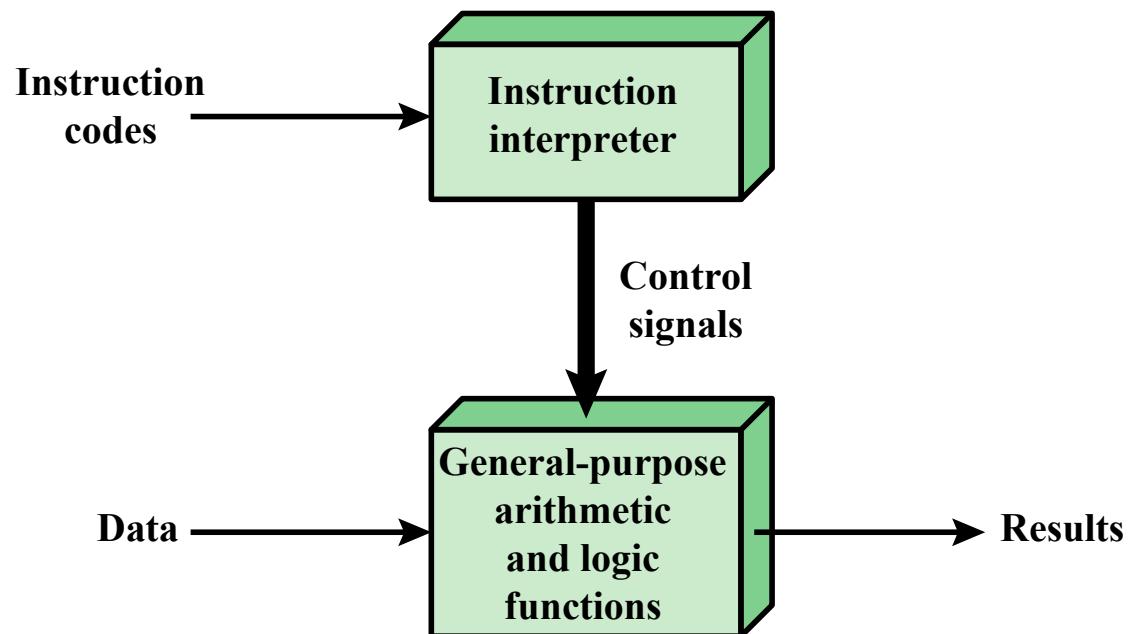


Figure: Hardware and software approaches.

(b) Programming in software

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□ Historical Development

1.4 Computer Evolution

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Historical Development

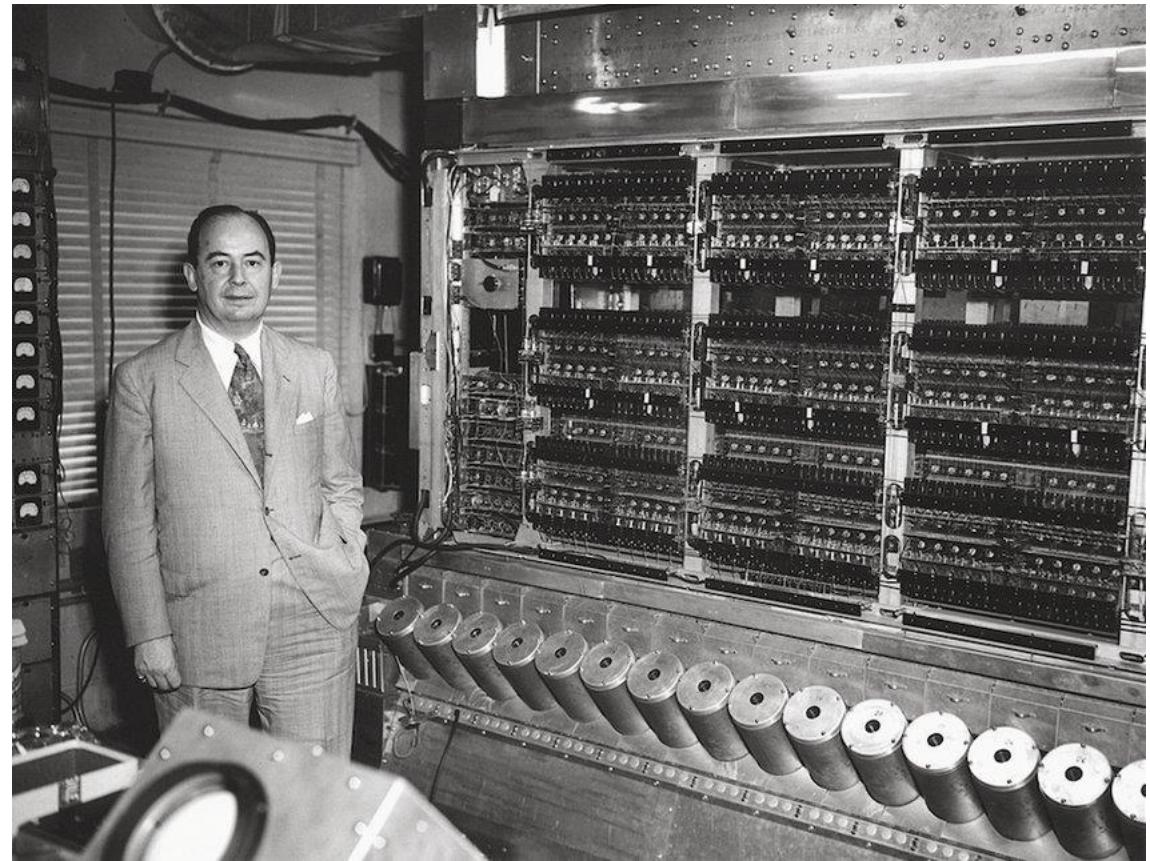
- The evolution of computers can be divided into **generations**.
- Each generation being defined by the technology used to build the machine.

Gen.	Years	Technology	Typical Speed (Operation / sec)
0	1642 – 1946	Mechanical Calculating Machines	< 40,000
1 st	1946 – 1957	Vacuum Tube Computers	40,000
2 nd	1957 – 1964	Transistorized Computers	200,000
3 rd 4 th	1965 – 1978	Integrated Circuit Computers	1,000,000
5 th	1978 – 1991	Very large scale integration (VLSI)	100,000,000
6 th	1991 – ????	Ultra large scale integration (ULSI)	> 1,000,000,000

1st Generation: The von Neumann Model

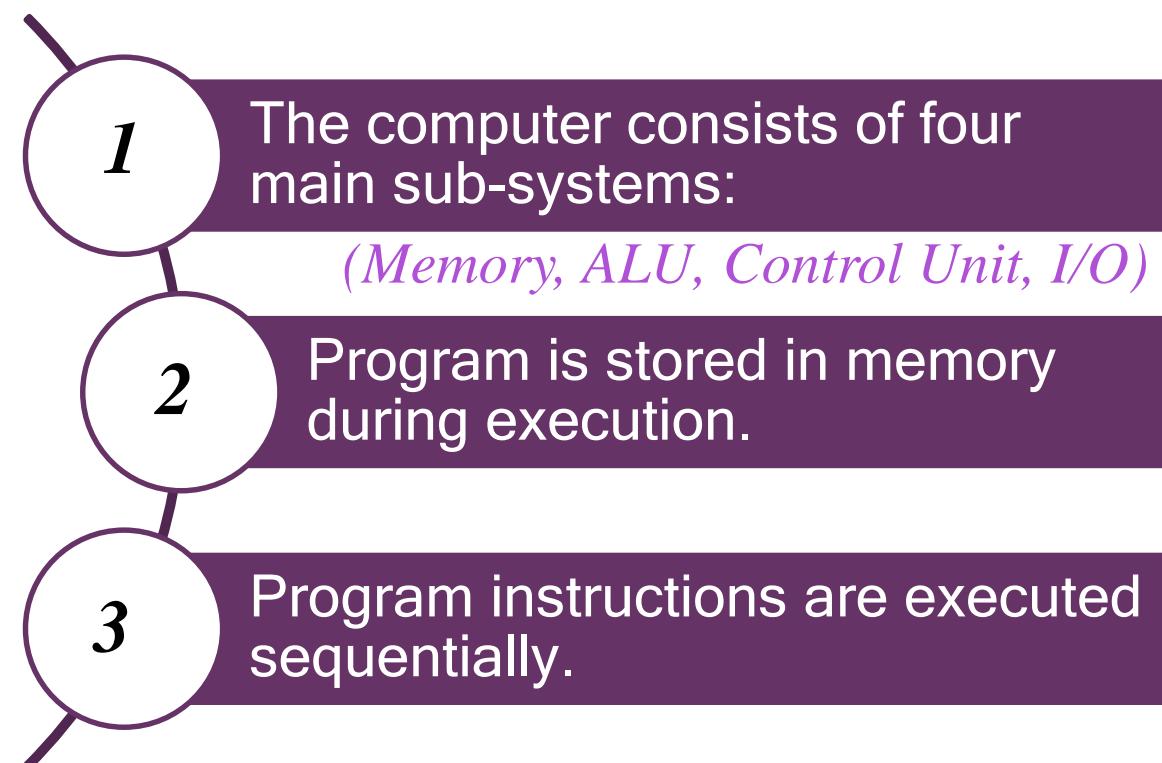
(pronounced *von noy-man*)

- In the earliest electronic computing machines, **programming** was synonymous with connecting wires to plugs.



- No layered architecture existed, so programming a computer was as much of a feat of electrical engineering as it was an exercise in algorithm design.
- All **stored-program** computers have come to be known as *von Neumann systems* using the *von Neumann architecture* (model).

- This **von Neumann model** used for designing and building the first generation (**Vacuum Tubes Computer**).



Single path is often referred to as the:

*von Neumann bottleneck*²

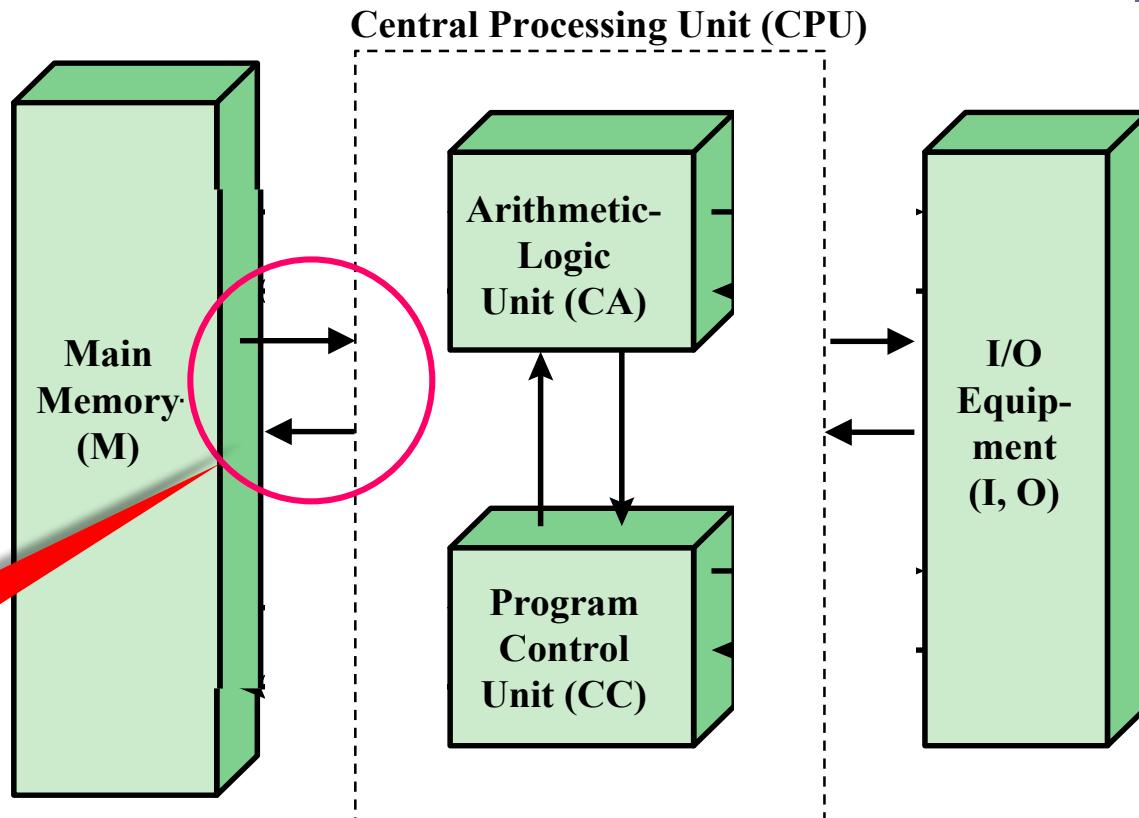


Figure: Structure of von Neumann machine.

- Conventional **stored-program** computers have undergone many incremental improvements over the years.
- These improvements include adding specialized buses, floating-point units, and cache memories, to name only a few.
- Departure from the classic von Neumann architecture
→ hence the **non von Neumann** model.

1st Generation: The **Non** von Neumann Model

- Adding processors and parallel processing are examples of approaches in a *non* von Neumann model.
 - Adding processors can increase computational throughput.
 - Parallel computers improve speed by doing multiple tasks at one time.

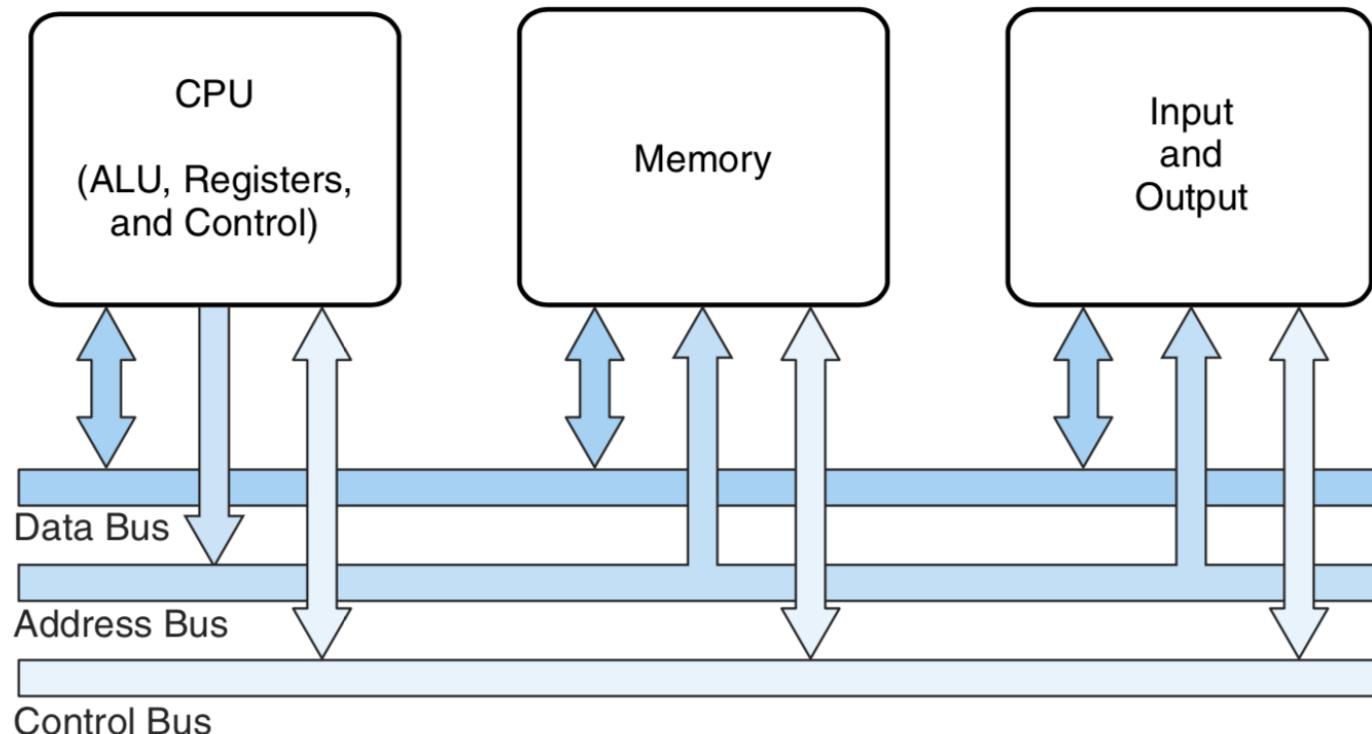


Figure: The modified von Neumann architecture, adding a system bus.

Processors:

- In the late 1960s, high-performance computer systems were equipped with dual processors to increase computational throughput.
- In the 1970s **supercomputer** systems were introduced with 32 processors.
- Supercomputers with 1,000 processors were built in the 1980s.
- In 1999, IBM announced its *Blue Gene* system containing over 1 million processors.



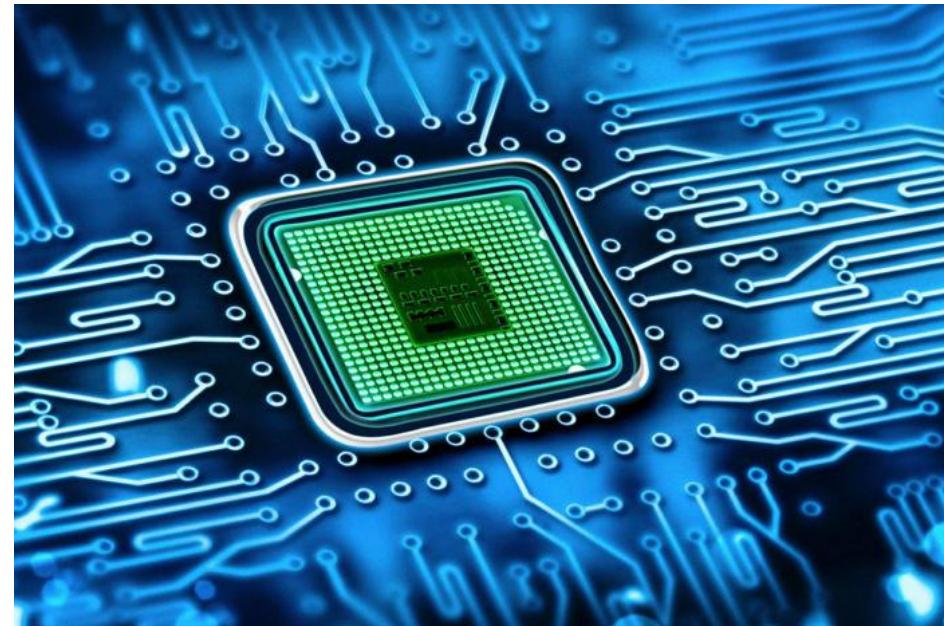
Parallel Processing:

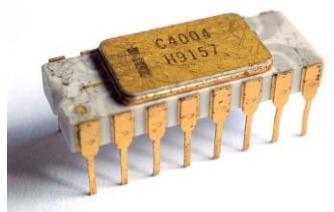
- Parallel processing is currently the most popular and the only one method of providing increased computational power.
- More radical systems have reinvented the fundamental concepts of computation.
- These advanced systems include genetic computers, quantum computers, and dataflow systems.

- At this point, it is unclear whether any of these systems will provide the basis for the next generation of computers.

4th Generation: Microprocessors

- **Microprocessor :**
all CPU
components on a
single chip.
- The more elements were placed on each chip, so that fewer chips were needed to construct a single computer processor.

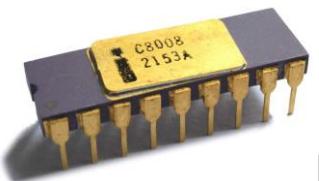




Intel 4004

1971

- First microprocessor
- 4 bits



Intel 8008

1972

- 8 bits
- Both designed for specific applications.



Intel 8080



1974

- Intel's first general purpose microprocessor
- Designed to be the CPU of a general purpose microcomputer.



Used in first personal computer – Altair

Figure: Early Evolution of Intel Processors

The Evolution of the Intel x86 Architecture

- Intel has ranked as the number 1 maker of microprocessors for non-embedded systems for decades.



- 8086
 - much more powerful.
 - 16 bits
 - instruction cache, pre-fetch few instructions.
 - 8088 (8 bit external bus) used in first IBM PC.
- 80286
 - 16 MB memory addressable.
- 80386
 - First 32 bit design.
 - Support for multitasking that run multiple programs at the same time.

■ 80486

- sophisticated powerful cache and instruction pipelining.
- built in maths co-processor.

■ Pentium

- Superscalar technique - multiple instructions executed in parallel.

■ Pentium Pro

- Increased superscalar organization.
- Aggressive register renaming.
- branch prediction.
- data flow analysis.
- speculative execution.





Pentium II

- MMX technology
- graphics, video and audio processing.

Pentium III

- Additional floating point instructions for 3D graphics.

Pentium 4

- Further floating point and multimedia enhancements.

Itanium

- 64 bit.

Core Duo

- starts of a multicore processor.

Quad Core

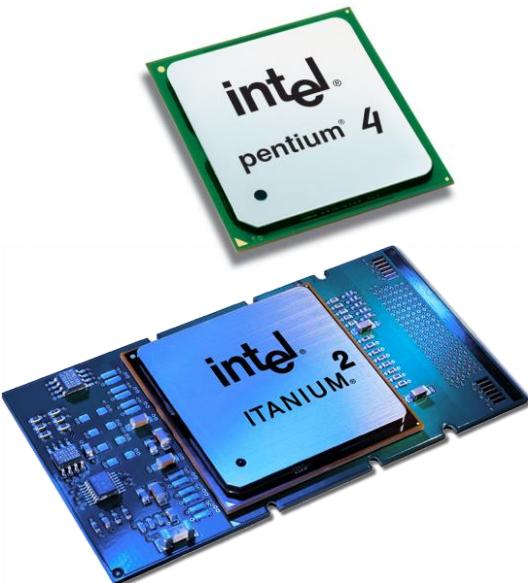


Table: (a) 1990s processors (b) Recent processors.**(a)**

	486TM SX	Pentium	Pentium Pro	Pentium II
Introduced	1991	1993	1995	1997
Clock speeds	16–33 MHz	60–166 MHz	150–200 MHz	200–300 MHz
Bus width	32 bits	32 bits	64 bits	64 bits
Number of transistors	1.185 million	3.1 million	5.5 million	7.5 million
Feature size (μm)	1	0.8	0.6	0.35
Addressable memory	4 GB	4 GB	64 GB	64 GB
Virtual memory	64 TB	64 TB	64 TB	64 TB
Cache	8 kB	8 kB	512 kB L1 and 1 MB L2	512 kB L2

(b)

	Pentium III	Pentium 4	Core 2 Duo	Core i7 EE 4960X
Introduced	1999	2000	2006	2013
Clock speeds	450–660 MHz	1.3–1.8 GHz	1.06–1.2 GHz	4 GHz
Bus width	64 bits	64 bits	64 bits	64 bits
Number of transistors	9.5 million	42 million	167 million	1.86 billion
Feature size (nm)	250	180	65	22
Addressable memory	64 GB	64 GB	64 GB	64 GB
Virtual memory	64 TB	64 TB	64 TB	64 TB
Cache	512 kB L2	256 kB L2	2 MB L2	1.5 MB L2/15 MB L3
Number of cores	1	1	2	6

L1 (Level 1 – closest to the core)

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- Overview
- Layers in Virtual
Machines

Overview

- Computers consist of many things besides chips.
- Before a computer can do anything worthwhile, it must also use **software**.
- Writing complex programs requires a “*divide and conquer*” approach, where each program module solves a smaller problem.
- Complex computer systems employ a similar technique through a series of **virtual machine layers**.

Layers in Virtual Machines

- Each **virtual machine** layer is an abstraction of the **level** below it.
- The machines at each level execute their own particular instructions, calling upon machines at lower levels to perform tasks as required.
- Computer circuits ultimately carry out the work.

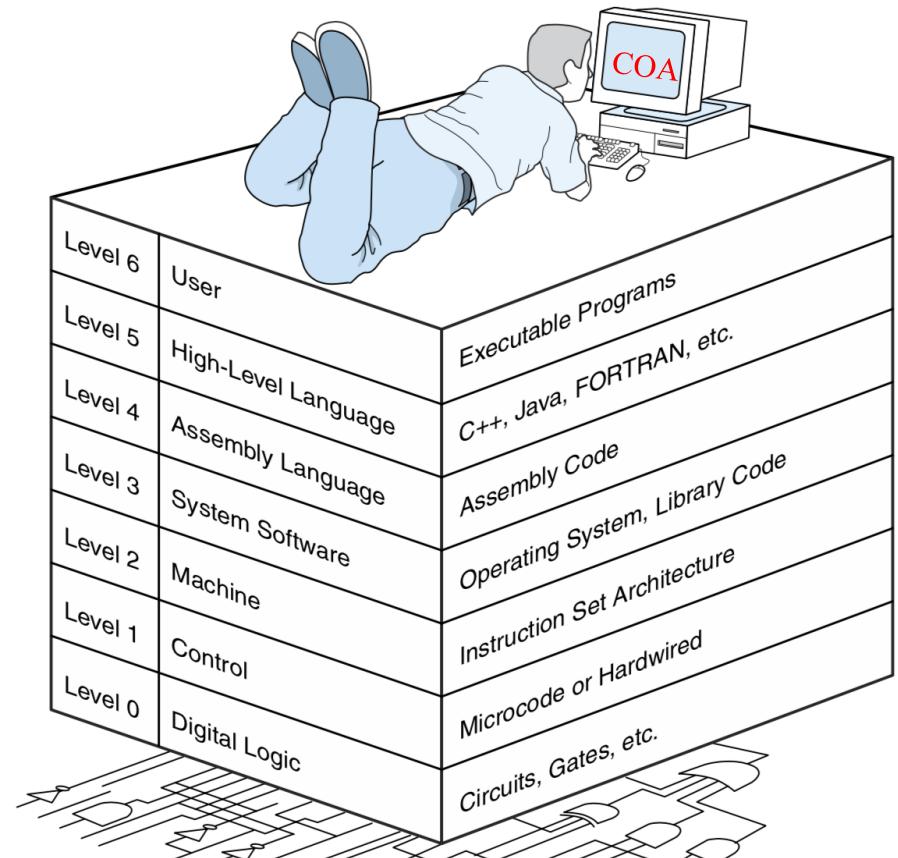


Figure: The Abstract Levels of Modern Computing Systems

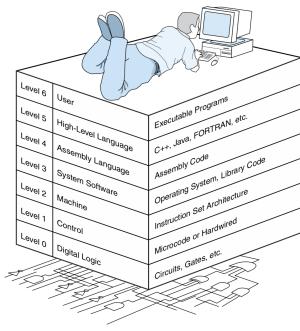


Table: Commonly accepted layers in virtual machines.

Level 6: The User Level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Program execution and user interface level. <input type="checkbox"/> The level with which we are most familiar.
Level 5: High-Level Language Level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> The level with which we interact when we write programs in languages such as C, Pascal, Lisp, and Java.
Level 4: Assembly Language Level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Acts upon assembly language produced from Level 5, as well as instructions programmed directly at this level.

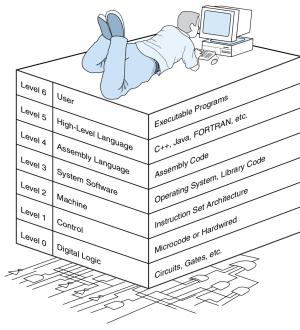


Table: ... Commonly accepted layers in virtual machines.

<p>Level 3: System Software Level</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Controls executing processes on the system. □ Protects system resources. □ Assembly language instructions often pass through Level 3 without modification.
<p>Level 2: Machine / ISA Level</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Consists of instructions that are particular to the architecture of the machine. □ Programs written in machine language need <i>no compilers, interpreters, or assemblers</i>.

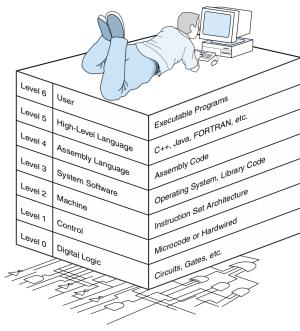


Table: ... Commonly accepted layers in virtual machines.

**Level 1:
Control
Level**

- A **control unit** decodes and executes instructions, and moves data through the system.
- Control units can be **microprogrammed** or **hardwired**.
 - A **microprogram** is a program written in a low-level language that is implemented by the hardware.
 - **Hardwired** control units consist of hardware that directly executes machine instructions.

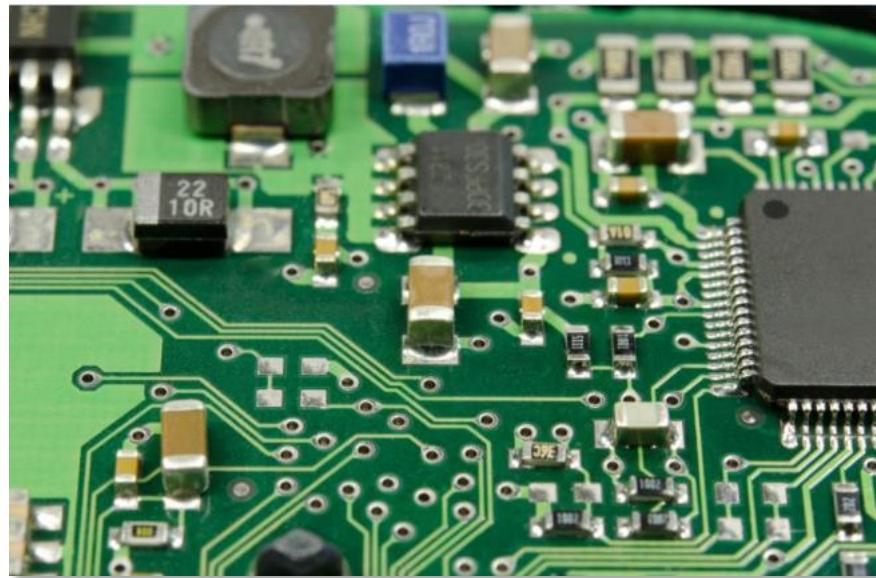
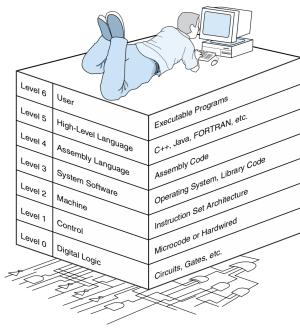


Table: ... Commonly accepted layers in virtual machines.

Level 0:
Digital Logic
Level

- This level is where we find digital circuits (the chips).
- Digital circuits consist of gates and wires.
- These components implement the mathematical logic of all other levels.

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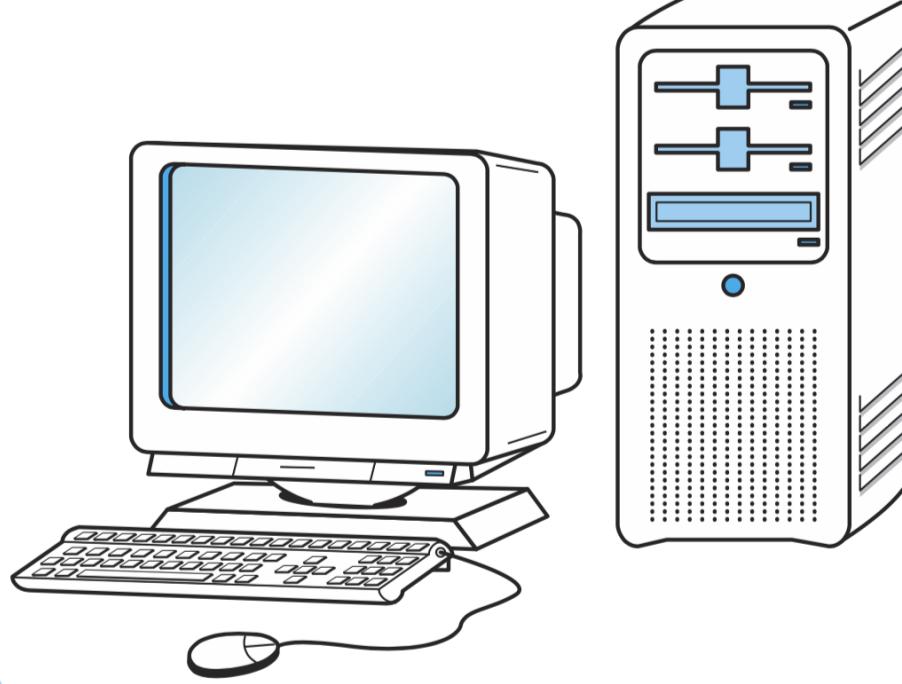
- Overview
- Basic Measurement Terminology

Overview

- This section will introduce some of the vocabulary that is specific to computers.
- This jargon can be confusing, imprecise, and intimidating.
- For the sake of discussion, the next slide has provided a facsimile computer advertisement.

*What does it all means ?
L1 cache? PCI? MHz?
MB? USB?*

FOR SALE: OBSOLETE COMPUTER – CHEAP! CHEAP! CHEAP!



- Pentium III 667 MHz
- 133 MHz 64MB SDRAM
- 32KB L1 cache, 256KB L2 cache
- 30GB EIDE hard drive (7200 RPM)
- 48X max variable CD-ROM
- 2 USB ports, 1 serial port, 1 parallel port
- 19" monitor, .24mm AG, 1280 × 1024 at 85Hz
- Intel 3D AGP graphics card
- 56K PCI voice modem
- 64-bit PCI sound card

A yellow cartoon character with a worried expression is shown on the right side of the advertisement.

Figure: A typical computer advertisement.

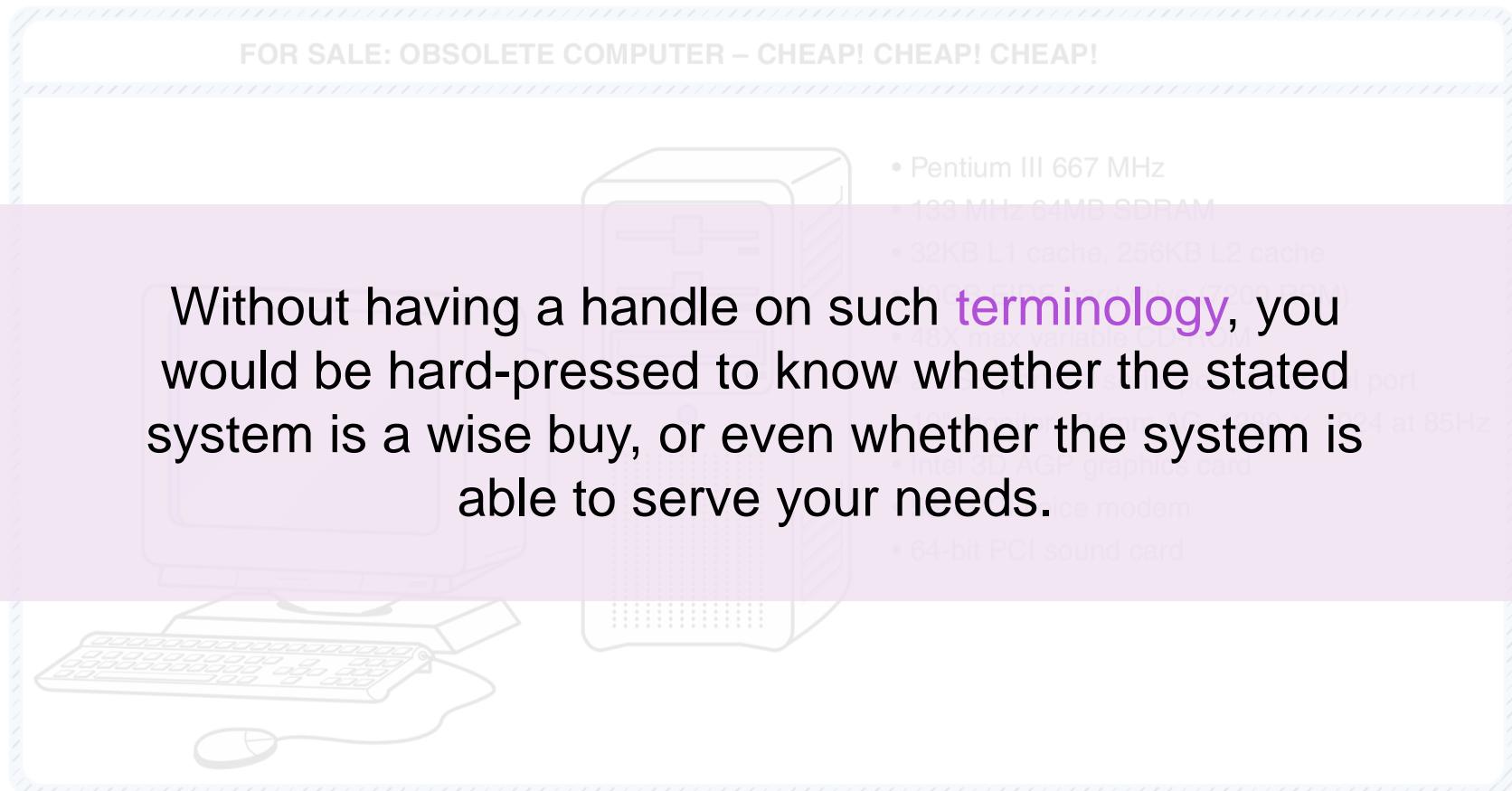


Figure: A typical computer advertisement.

Basic Measurement Terminology

Kilo- (K)	(1 thousand = $10^3 \approx 2^{10}$)	Milli- (m)	(1 thousandth = $10^{-3} \approx 2^{-10}$)
Mega- (M)	(1 million = $10^6 \approx 2^{20}$)	Micro- (μ)	(1 millionth = $10^{-6} \approx 2^{-20}$)
Giga- (G)	(1 billion = $10^9 \approx 2^{30}$)	Nano- (n)	(1 billionth = $10^{-9} \approx 2^{-30}$)
Tera- (T)	(1 trillion = $10^{12} \approx 2^{40}$)	Pico- (p)	(1 trillionth = $10^{-12} \approx 2^{-40}$)
Peta- (P)	(1 quadrillion = $10^{15} \approx 2^{50}$)	Femto- (f)	(1 quadrillionth = $10^{-15} \approx 2^{-50}$)

(a) Measures of capacity and speed

(b) Measures of time and space

Figure: Common Prefixes Associated with Computer Organization and Architecture

- Whether a metric refers to a power of 10 or a power of 2, typically depends upon what is being measured.

Example: Capacity and speed.

- *Hertz* = clock cycles per second (frequency)
 - $1MHz = 1,000,000Hz$
 - Processor speeds are measured in MHz or GHz .
- *Byte* = a unit of storage
 - $1KB = 2^{10} = 1024\ Bytes.$
 - $1MB = 2^{20} = 1,048,576\ Bytes.$
 - Main memory (RAM) is measured in MB .
 - Disk storage is measured in GB for small systems, TB for large systems.

Example: Time and space.

- *Millisecond* = 1 thousandth of a *second*
 - Hard disk drive access times are often 10 to 20 *milliseconds*.
- *Nanosecond* = 1 billionth of a *second*
 - Main memory access times are often 50 to 70 *nanoseconds*.
- *Micron* (micrometer) = 1 millionth of a *meter*
 - Circuits on computer chips are measured in *microns*.



- We note that **cycle time** is the reciprocal of **clock frequency**.
- A bus operating at $133MHz$ has a cycle time of 7.52 *nanoseconds*:

$$133,000,000 \text{ cycles/second} = 7.52 \text{ ns/cycle}$$



Lets go back to the advertisement ...

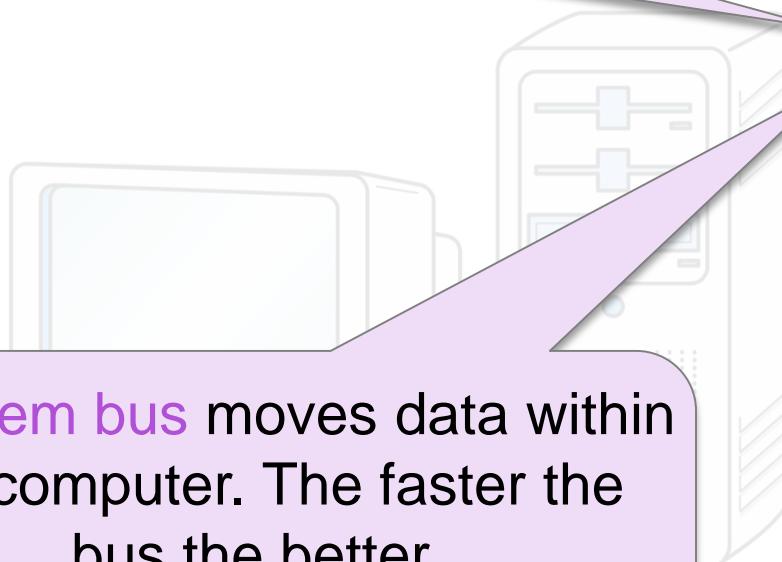
Video 2 - Computer Clock

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- What is clock in a computer? Please watch this YouTube video
- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Z5JC9Ve1sfl>

The **microprocessor** is the “brain” of the system. It executes program instructions.

This one is a **Pentium III (Intel)** running at **667MHz**.



A **system bus** moves data within the computer. The faster the bus the better.

This one runs at **133MHz**.

- Pentium III 667 MHz
- 133 MHz 64MB SDRAM
- 32KB L1 cache, 256KB L2 cache
- 30GB EIDE hard drive (7200 RPM)
- 48X max variable CD-ROM
- 2 USB ports, 1 serial port, 1 parallel port
- 19" monitor, .24mm AG, 1280 × 1024 at 85Hz
- Intel 3D AGP graphics card
- 56K PCI voice modem
- 64-bit PCI sound card

Figure: A typical computer advertisement.



- Computers with **large main memory** capacity can run larger programs with greater speed than computers having small memories.
- RAM is an acronym for **Random Access Memory**.
 - Random access means that memory contents can be accessed directly if you know its location.
- **Cache** is a type of temporary memory that can be accessed faster than RAM.

FOR SALE: OBSOLETE COMPUTER – CHEAP! CHEAP!

- Pentium III 667 MHz
- 133 MHz 64MB SDRAM
- 32KB L1 cache, 256KB L2 cache
- 30GB EIDE hard drive (7200 RPM)
- 48X rewritable CD-ROM
- 2 serial ports, 1 serial port, 1 parallel port
- 19" monitor, .24mm AG, 1280 × 1024 at 85Hz
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... and two levels of **cache memory**, the level 1 (L1) cache is smaller and (probably) faster than the L2 cache.

Note that these cache sizes are measured in *KB*.

This system has 64MB of (fast) Synchronous Dynamic RAM (SDRAM)

Figure: A typical computer advertisement.

Hard disk capacity determines the amount of data and size of programs you can store.

This one can store **30GB**.
7200 *RPM* is the rotational speed of the disk. Generally, the faster a disk rotates, the faster it can deliver data to RAM. (There are many other factors involved).

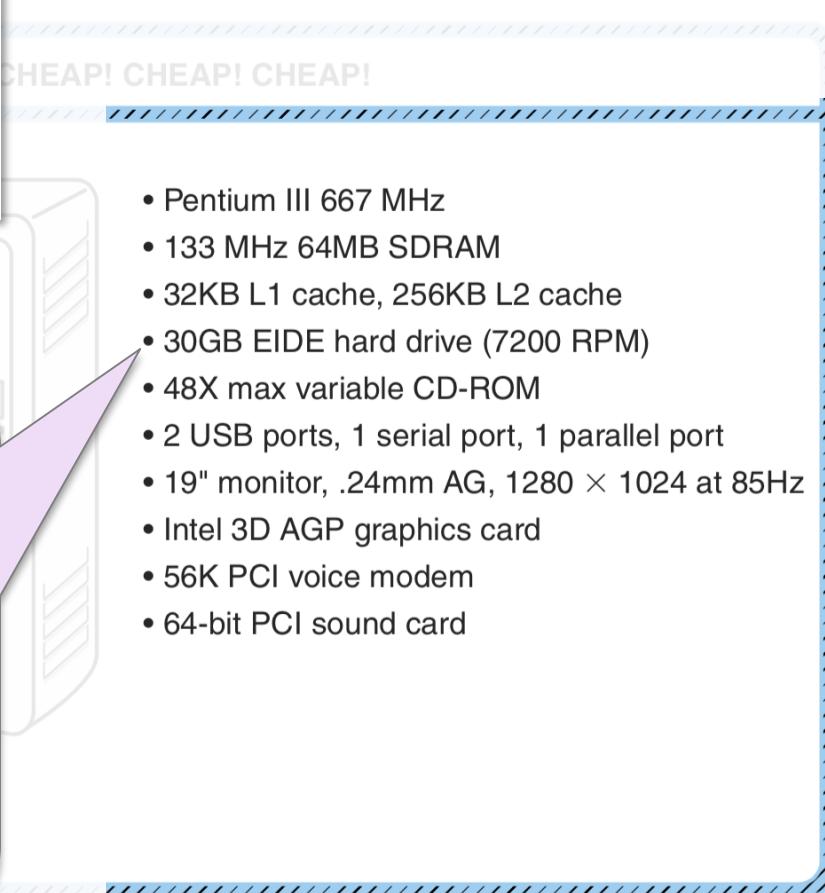


Figure 1. A typical computer advertisement.

EIDE stands for *Enhanced Integrated Drive Electronics*, which describes how the **hard disk interfaces** with (or connects to) other system components.

A CD can store about **650MB** of data.

This drive is not rewritable CDs, that cannot be written to many times ...

48x describes its speed.

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Figure. A typical computer advertisement.

- ❑ Ports allow movement of data between a system and its external devices.
- ❑ Most desktop computers come with two kinds of data ports: **serial** ports and **parallel** ports.

This system equipped with a special **serial connection** called a **USB (Universal Serial Bus)** ports.

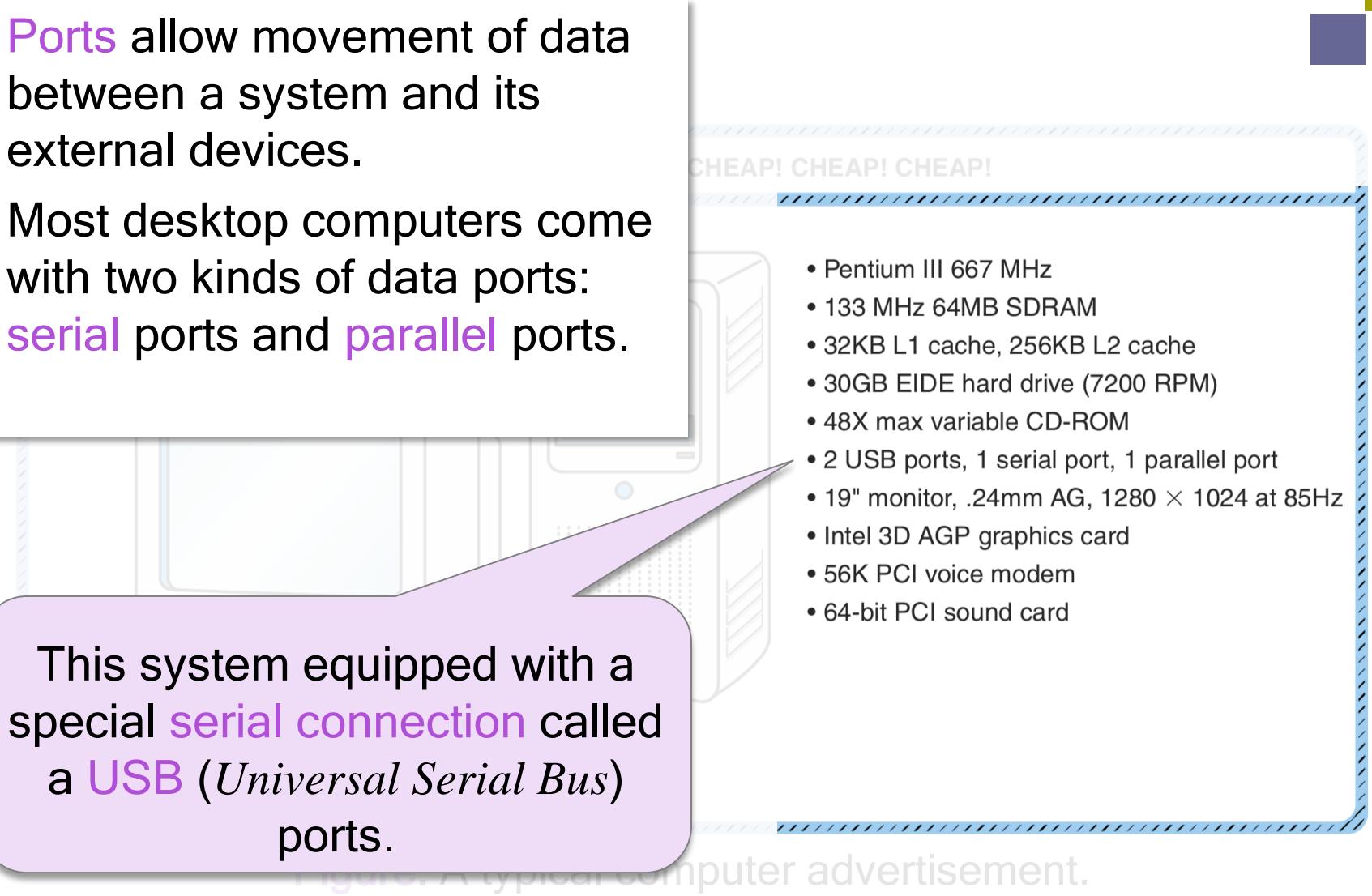


Figure 1. A typical computer advertisement.

- **Serial ports** send data as a series of pulses along one or two data lines.



Serial Ports

- **Parallel ports** send data as a single pulse along at least eight data lines.

- **USB (*Universal Serial Bus*)**, is an intelligent serial interface that is self-configuring.

- It supports “**plug and play**”.



Parallel Ports

- **System buses** can be augmented by dedicated I/O buses.
- **PCI, *Peripheral Component Interface*, is one such bus.**



This system has 2 **PCI devices**: a voice modem, and a sound card.

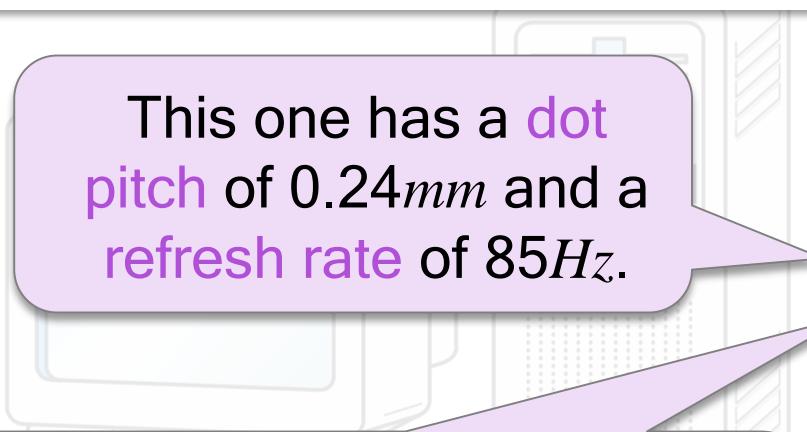
! CHEAP! CHEAP!

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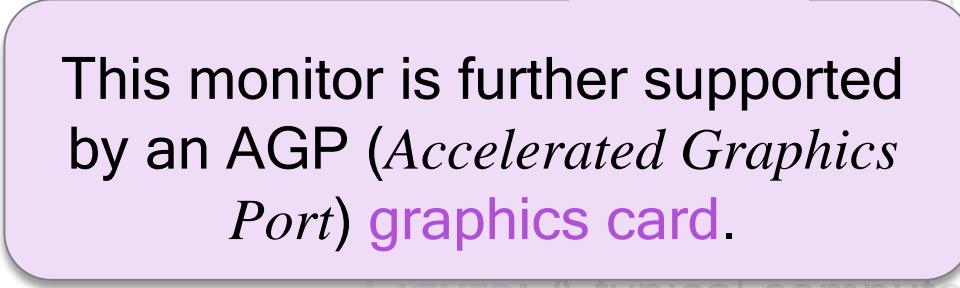
Figure 7.7 A typical computer advertisement.

The number of times per second that the image on a **monitor** is repainted is its *refresh rate*.

The *dot pitch* of a monitor tells us how clear the image is (**Resolution**).



This one has a **dot pitch** of 0.24mm and a **refresh rate** of 85Hz .



This monitor is further supported by an **AGP (Accelerated Graphics Port) graphics card**.

CHEAP! CHEAP!

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Figure: A typical computer advertisement.

- The distinction between computer organization and computer architecture is not clear-cut.
- In fact, neither **computer organization** nor **computer architecture** can stand alone. They are interrelated and interdependent.
- Students can truly understand each of these fields only after they comprehend both throughout the remainder of this course.
- This leads to a deeper understanding of computers and computation – the heart and soul of **computer science**.

- 1.1 What, in general terms, is the distinction between computer organization and computer architecture?
- 1.2 What, in general terms, is the distinction between computer structure and computer function?
- 1.3 What are the four main functions of a computer?
- 1.4 List and briefly define the main structural components of a computer.
- 1.5 List and briefly define the main structural components of a processor.

- 1.6 What is a stored program computer?
- 1.7 What are the four main components of any general-purpose computer?
- 1.8 List and explain the key characteristics of a computer family.
- 1.9 What is the key distinguishing feature of a microprocessor?